

## BIROn - Birkbeck Institutional Research Online

Dornelles, A.Z. and Boonstra, W.J. and Delabre, Izabela and Denney, J.M. and Nunes, R.J. and Jentsch, A. and Nicholas, K.A. and Schroter, M. and Seppelt, R. and Settele, J. and Shackelford, N. and Standish, R.J. and Oliver, T.H. (2022) Transformation archetypes in global food systems. *Sustainability Science* 17 , pp. 1827-1840. ISSN 1862-4065.

Downloaded from: <https://eprints.bbk.ac.uk/id/eprint/47365/>

*Usage Guidelines:*

Please refer to usage guidelines at <https://eprints.bbk.ac.uk/policies.html>  
contact [lib-eprints@bbk.ac.uk](mailto:lib-eprints@bbk.ac.uk).

or alternatively

# 1 Transformation archetypes in global food systems

2  
3 André Z. Dornelles<sup>1,2\*</sup>, Wiebren J. Boonstra<sup>3,3a</sup>, Izabela Delabre<sup>4</sup>, J. Michael Denney<sup>5</sup>,  
4 Richard J. Nunes<sup>2</sup>, Anke Jentsch<sup>6</sup>, Kimberly A. Nicholas<sup>7</sup>, Matthias Schröter<sup>8</sup>, Ralf  
5 Seppelt<sup>9, 9a, 9b</sup>, Josef Settele<sup>9b, 10, 10a</sup>, Nancy Shackelford<sup>11</sup>, Rachel J. Standish<sup>12</sup>, Tom H.  
6 Oliver<sup>1</sup>.

7  
8 <sup>1</sup> School of Biological Sciences, University of Reading, UK

9 <sup>2</sup> Department of Real Estate and Planning, Henley Business School, University of  
10 Reading, UK

11 <sup>3</sup> Stockholm Resilience Centre, Stockholm University, Sweden

12 <sup>3a</sup> Natural Resources and Sustainable Development, Department of Earth Science,  
13 Uppsala University, Sweden

14 <sup>4</sup> Department of Geography, Birkbeck, University of London, UK

15 <sup>5</sup> Center for Governance and Sustainability, University of Massachusetts Boston, USA

16 <sup>6</sup> Bayreuth Center of Ecology and Environmental Research (BayCEER), University of  
17 Bayreuth, Germany

18 <sup>7</sup> Lund University Centre for Sustainability Studies (LUCSUS), Sweden

19 <sup>8</sup> Zukunft – Umwelt – Gesellschaft (ZUG), Germany

20 <sup>9</sup> Helmholtz Centre for Environmental Research - UFZ, Computational Landscape  
21 Ecology, Leipzig, Germany

22 <sup>9a</sup> Institute of Geoscience & Geography, Martin-Luther-University Halle-Wittenberg,  
23 Halle (Saale), Germany

24 <sup>9b</sup> German Centre for Integrative Biodiversity Research (iDiv), Halle-Jena-Leipzig,  
25 Germany

26 <sup>10</sup> Helmholtz Centre for Environmental Research- UFZ, Conservation Biology, Germany

27 <sup>10a</sup> Institute of Biological Sciences, College of Arts and Sciences, University of the  
28 Philippines, Los Baños, College, Laguna, Philippines

29 <sup>11</sup> Institute of Arctic and Alpine Research, University of Colorado at Boulder, USA

30 <sup>12</sup> Environmental and Conservation Sciences, Murdoch University, Western Australia

31

32 **\*Corresponding author:**

33 André Zuanazzi Dornelles

34 Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, School of Biological Sciences – University of  
35 Reading – Health and Life Sciences Building, Reading, RG6 6AS, United Kingdom.

36 Telephone: +44(0)118 3787016. E-mail: a\_dornelles@hotmail.com

37 Main text word count: 6,200.

38

39 **Author Contributions:**

40 All co-authors contributed to article conceptualisation and writing. André Dornelles was

41 responsible for data curation, visualisation and writing the original draft. André

42 Dornelles, Tom Oliver, Ralf Seppelt, and Michael Denney designed the methodology,

43 conducted the formal analysis, and verified the underlying data. André Dornelles and

44 Tom Oliver contributed to funding acquisition and article supervision. All authors had

45 full access to all data in the study and accept responsibility to submit this work for

46 publication.

47 **Abstract**

48 Food systems are primary drivers of human and environmental health, but the  
49 understanding of their dynamic co-transformation remains limited. We use a data-driven  
50 approach to disentangle different development pathways of national food systems (i.e.,  
51 ‘transformation archetypes’) based on historical, intertwined trends of food system  
52 structure (agricultural inputs and outputs and food trade), and social and environmental  
53 outcomes (malnutrition, biosphere integrity, and greenhouse gases emissions) for 161  
54 countries, from 1995 to 2015. We found that whilst food systems have consistently  
55 improved in terms of productivity (ratio of output to input), other metrics suggest a  
56 typology of three transformation archetypes across countries: rapidly expansionist,  
57 expansionist, and consolidative. Expansionist and rapidly expansionist archetypes  
58 increased in agricultural area, synthetic fertiliser use, and gross agricultural output, which  
59 was accompanied by malnutrition, environmental pressures, and lasting socioeconomic  
60 disadvantages. The lowest rates of change in key structure metrics were found in the  
61 consolidative archetype. Across all transformation archetypes, agricultural greenhouse  
62 gases emissions, synthetic fertiliser use, and ecological footprint of consumption  
63 increased faster than the expansion of agricultural area, and obesity levels increased more  
64 rapidly than undernourishment decreased. The persistence of these unsustainable  
65 trajectories occurred independently of improvements in productivity. Our model  
66 underscores the importance of quantifying the multiple human and environmental  
67 dimensions of food systems transformations and can serve as a starting point to identify  
68 potential leverage points for sustainability transformations. More attention is thus  
69 warranted to alternative development pathways able of delivering equitable benefits to  
70 both productivity and to human and environmental health.

## 71 **Introduction**

72 Industrial agriculture arose as a defining feature of global food systems, revealed by  
73 increased total crop yields and higher yield per input at scale. Important advancements in  
74 skills, technology, infrastructure, and trade led to increased food productivity (i.e., output  
75 in terms of weight or energy of food per unit of input invested - Benton & Bailey, 2019)  
76 and enabled the expansion of global, interconnected food supply chains. The widespread  
77 premise of prioritising yields and cheaper food to improve human nutrition, however, has  
78 recently been under scrutiny due to its detrimental effects to sustainable development  
79 (Lindgren et al., 2018; Sukhdev, 2018). From the perspective of the Sustainable  
80 Development Goals (SDGs) framework, numerous synergies and trade-offs exist between  
81 the 17 goals and 169 targets for human well-being, economic prosperity, and  
82 environmental protection (Pradhan et al., 2017). Arguably, food systems are the entity  
83 that primarily connects good health and wellbeing (SDG 3), sustainable consumption and  
84 production (SDG 12), and life on land (SDG 15 - Pradyumna, 2018).

85 Global food systems have been failing to deliver adequate diets for everyone: an  
86 increasing prevalence of 9% of the global population is undernourished whilst,  
87 paradoxically, obesity currently affects more than 13% of individuals (FAO et al., 2020)  
88 and roughly 1/3 of all food is lost or wasted (Aschemann-Witzel, 2016). Around 87% of  
89 all countries worldwide exhibit the coexistence of insufficient or excessive forms of  
90 malnutrition (Development Initiatives, 2020), and diet is the number one risk factor for  
91 mortality and morbidity worldwide (Afshin et al., 2019). In parallel, from production to  
92 consumption, food is responsible for 34% of anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions  
93 (Crippa et al., 2021; Poore & Nemecek, 2018) and about 70% of freshwater use (Whitmee  
94 et al., 2015). Agriculture is the prime driver of the transgression of biosphere integrity

95 and biogeochemical flow (e.g., nitrogen deposition - Campbell et al., 2017) and, in turn,  
96 is the sector most affected by these transgressions (IPCC, 2014). To move away from  
97 these trajectories, it is of paramount importance to analyse the systemic patterns of change  
98 of food systems as an entry point to the identification of potential leverage points for  
99 sustainability transformations (Abson et al., 2017; Oliver et al., 2018).

## 100 **Transformation of global food systems**

101 The investigation of the complex and dynamic interactions driving the sustainability and  
102 efficiency of food systems from input to output remains a challenge (Hadjikakou et al.,  
103 2019; TEEB, 2018). Food research is often fragmented across academic disciplines and  
104 sectors, and production or consumption stages tend to be studied in isolation from one  
105 another (Campbell et al., 2016; Dornelles et al., 2020). If metrics of health, equity and  
106 sustainability are not embedded in a more comprehensive framework of food systems  
107 efficiency (i.e., ‘the number of people that can be fed healthily and sustainably per unit  
108 input invested’ - Benton & Bailey, 2019), a narrow focus on increased productivity has  
109 the potential to accelerate detrimental effects for planetary and human health in an  
110 increasingly connected world (Bahadur et al., 2018; Bengtsson et al., 2018; Seppelt et al.,  
111 2020; Willett et al., 2019). Critically, a clearer understanding of the magnitude and  
112 direction of trade-offs between food systems’ productivity and key metrics is sorely  
113 needed for sustainability transformations (Fears et al., 2019; Nyström et al., 2019; Oliver  
114 et al., 2018; Pradhan et al., 2017). One way to achieve this, as we present in this study, is  
115 via an integrated model using standardized indicators to capture the multiple dimensions  
116 of food systems.

117 Whilst a focus on productivity of food systems has been elevated to a protagonist  
118 narrative (e.g., the claim that the world will need to produce 70% more food by 2050 has

119 assumed unexpected traction - Alexandratos & Bruinsma, 2012; Benton & Bailey, 2019;  
120 Sukhdev, 2018), more holistic development pathways of multiple, co-transforming  
121 environmental and social outcomes in global food systems are often unquantified. Such  
122 social-ecological links related to food tend to be reported either in the form of states or  
123 trajectories. The state of multiple environmental, social and economic indicators across  
124 food systems have been measured cross-sectionally at different times and spaces  
125 (Chaudhary et al., 2018; Zurek et al., 2018) by the impacts of specific food types (Clark  
126 & Tilman, 2017; Poore & Nemecek, 2018; Springmann, Clark, et al., 2018), and/or by  
127 estimates of future production hotspots or of potential mitigation measures for biosphere  
128 integrity (Springmann, Clark, et al., 2018; Zabel et al., 2019). In contrast, longitudinal  
129 studies track variables through time and so offer a means to connect cause and effect, and  
130 to study trajectories. This approach has been used previously to study transformation  
131 pathways of food systems for pre-defined groups of countries (e.g., by areas of free trade  
132 or level of development - FAO, 2017), for quantifying the costs and economic returns of  
133 distinct agricultural models (Ruttan, 1977), for the exploration of mechanisms behind  
134 agricultural transitions (e.g., interactions between population growth and urbanization -  
135 Cumming et al., 2014), or for national food indicators of socio-economic access,  
136 biophysical capacity, and diversity of production (i.e., ‘resilience indicators’ - Seekell et  
137 al., 2017). As the availability of rich longitudinal datasets increases, so does the  
138 opportunity to: 1) gain an empirical understanding of intertwined rates of change within  
139 and across national food systems; 2) quantify the direction and magnitude of structure  
140 and outcome metrics under a comparable methodology; and thus to 3) specifically capture  
141 and compare the transformational feature of food systems.

142

143 **Methods**

144 **Overview**

145 Our data-driven approach to identify patterns of transformation (i.e., ‘transformation  
146 archetypes’) in global food systems analyses historical trends of structure metrics  
147 including agricultural inputs, outputs, and trade, and their relationship to outcomes  
148 including biosphere integrity, malnutrition (i.e., obesity and undernourishment), and  
149 greenhouse gases emissions in 161 countries, from 1995 to 2015. ‘Transformation  
150 archetypes’, in our study, reveal categorisations of patterns of incremental change that are  
151 suggestive of specific transition pathways, and the trajectories that these processes  
152 suggest or point to in terms of futures that may or may not be sustainable. This approach  
153 integrates statistical methods often used in ecology (e.g., cluster analysis and dissimilarity  
154 matrixes - Charrad et al., 2014) with macroeconomic measurements of trend analysis  
155 (e.g., Compound Annual Growth Rate; expressed as % of annual change and reported as  
156 median and interquartile range). Our analysis assumes broadly constant compound  
157 temporal rates, which is supported by an additional analysis of five-year intervals to  
158 explore potential short-term spikes. Our approach to map the resultant archetypes of food  
159 system change with respect to co-transforming environmental, social, and economic  
160 outcomes is valuable to help to investigate intertwined empirical links, track the speed of  
161 progress towards desirable social-ecological goals, and also reveal watchpoints to  
162 potentially mitigate risks associated with the existing undesirable trajectories of change  
163 (Dornelles et al., 2020).

164 Our analysis of transformation archetypes in global food systems consisted of three main  
165 stages (Supplementary Figure S1): 1) Data acquisition – extensive review and search; 2)  
166 Data preparation – standardization and duration filters applied; and 3) Data analysis –

167 trend analysis, cluster algorithm, significance testing, and analysis of five-year intervals.

168 All steps in data preparation and analysis were conducted in the software R version 3.6.1.

169 **Data acquisition:**

170 We conducted an extensive search of publicly available repositories and official databases

171 for comprehensive structure and outcome metrics expressing multiple aspects of

172 agricultural production, food security and biosphere integrity related to food systems

173 (Supplementary Table S1). Our design enabled a comparative assessment of the

174 paradigms of interest: structure metrics are widely used as measurements of increased

175 production (cf. *paradigm of productivity*), whilst the combination of structure and

176 outcome metrics were here used to assess their links to productivity (cf. *paradigm of*

177 *systemic efficiency*). A simplified framework of structure and outcome metrics and their

178 connections in our integrative model is shown in Figure 1.

179 Structure metrics expressed different aspects and practices related to agricultural

180 production as a whole and related indicators of socioeconomic access, as follows: input

181 (composed by agricultural area, synthetic fertilizer use, and agricultural employment),

182 output (represented by gross agricultural output), productivity (quantified by Agricultural

183 Total Factor Productivity Index), and economic metrics (constituted by food imports,

184 food exports, and Producer Price Index of agriculture). Structure metrics, as such, reveal

185 means to achieve the ultimate function of food systems (i.e., feeding people) or are related

186 to them as drivers or elements. Outcome metrics accounted for specific and non-specific

187 impacts of food systems products and/or activities in respect to biosphere integrity

188 (expressed by the Red List Index), land-system change (covering forest area and

189 Ecological Footprint of Consumption), malnutrition (composed by prevalence of adult

190 obesity and prevalence of undernourishment), and greenhouse gases emissions (including

191 agricultural GHGE, land-use change and forestry GHGE, and the sum of agricultural,  
192 forestry, and other land-use – AFOLU GHGE; Supplementary Table S1). Outcome  
193 metrics, in this sense, express direct food-related goals for human and planetary health,  
194 proxy quantifications of such goals, and/or potential externalities from food practices.  
195 Socioeconomic indicators were represented by income category, GDP per capita  
196 (expressed as nominal and purchasing power parity), and the Human Development Index  
197 (expressed as index and category).  
198 Data criteria for acquisition included attributes for length (minimum of 100 countries),  
199 time series (minimum of 10 years of measured observations, preferentially on a yearly  
200 basis), and relevance to multiple food systems stages. Twelve databases were explored  
201 from which 36 different metrics were acquired, respecting these selection criteria and  
202 described in more details in the Supplementary Tables S2 and S3. Metadata for all metrics  
203 are available in the Supplementary materials.

204 **Data preparation:**

205 The metrics acquired were subsequently collated into a hierarchical (i.e., individual  
206 variables, derived variables, and aggregate indicators) and standardized format by  
207 ‘country’, ‘year’, and ‘value’ for the longitudinal analysis. Instead of using conventional  
208 units for the state of a metric (e.g., hectares for spatial coverage, % of employment for  
209 agricultural work, or indexes for aggregated indicators), we expressed our data as annual  
210 change rate to enable a normalised comparison between distinct metrics and to  
211 specifically capture the transformational element of food systems (more details in ‘trends  
212 analysis’). An exception to this approach was used for socioeconomic indicators explored  
213 in our study which, in terms of practical relevance, are categorical (e.g., income category

214 and Human Development Index category) and cannot be expressed in % of annual  
215 change.

216 We took precautions to prevent double-counting across the different hierarchies of our  
217 structure and outcome metrics. For structure metrics, we investigated how the patterns of  
218 change of raw (e.g., agricultural area) and proportional variables (e.g., agricultural  
219 employment) helped to explain wider patterns of change in one aggregate indicator in  
220 which they are embedded (e.g., productivity, TFP). All structure metrics were previously  
221 scaled and tested for correlations before the analysis of rates of co-transformation across  
222 countries (more details in ‘cluster algorithm’). For outcome metrics, we explored the links  
223 between the emergent development pathways found across countries with changes in: a)  
224 specific food-related impacts (e.g., malnutrition); b) externalities tied to changes in  
225 structure metrics (e.g., biosphere integrity), and c) different components of such pressures  
226 (e.g., agricultural GHGE, land-use change and forestry GHGE, and AFOLU GHGE).

227 The filters and duration analysis were conducted for each metric in two steps: a) an initial  
228 filter designed to collate the metrics which met the initial criteria for acquisition (data for  
229  $\geq 100$  countries and  $\geq 10$  years of observations) after the standardization stage; and b) a  
230 refined filter programmed to extract maximum number of countries with comparable  
231 durations (i.e., number of years) and periods (i.e., in a similar time coverage) across the  
232 remaining metrics following the initial filter, covering at least 80% of the possible  
233 maximum duration for that respective window of time (see Supplementary materials;  
234 Supplementary Tables S4 and S5). In other words, the refined filter of best fit analysis  
235 was intended to assemble the metrics by the most reasonable chronological consistency,  
236 and thus avoid anachronic comparisons in duration (e.g., comparing the annual growth  
237 rate of 12 years of measured observations of one particular country with 40 years of data

238 points of a different country) or period of coverage (e.g., juxtaposing the annual growth  
239 rate of one country from 1961 to 1981 with another country from 1991 to 2011).

240 **Data analysis:**

241 Our data analysis consisted of four steps: (a) trend analysis, (b) cluster algorithm, (c)  
242 significance testing, and (d) analysis of five-year intervals.

243 **(a) Trends analysis:**

244 The trend analysis was designed to assess the patterns of transformation per year in all  
245 structure and outcome metrics across countries. Following the filter of best fit indicated  
246 in the data preparation stage, the timeframe for evaluation and comparison of metrics was  
247 stipulated for the period from 1995 to 2015. In our model, we adapted the widely used  
248 equation of compound annual growth rate to estimate annualized trends in all metrics  
249 (Prajneshu & Chandran, 2005). Whilst there might exist legitimate foundations for  
250 criticism on the use of empirical models assuming linear change over time (Paine et al.,  
251 2012; Prajneshu & Chandran, 2005) we understand that the adjusted equation and  
252 subsequent analysis of five-year intervals sufficiently address any potential limitations of  
253 our approach. In addition, the use of the adjusted compound annual change rate can  
254 facilitate comparison amongst multiple metrics which show varying longitudinal paths  
255 while enabling a standardized expression of change across numerous countries. The  
256 adapted equation of compound annual change rate, expressed as % of annual change  
257 (reported in the results as median and interquartile range), was calculated taking into  
258 account the median of the first five *starting values* and the last five *end values* in order to  
259 prevent undue weight of first and last years:

260 
$$\text{End value} = \text{median}(\text{last five end values})$$

261 
$$\text{Start value} = \text{median}(\text{first five start values})$$

$$262 \quad CACR = \left( \frac{End\ value}{Start\ value} \right)^{\left( \frac{1}{End\ value\ (Year) - Start\ value\ (Year)} \right)} - 1 \times 100$$

263 **(b) Cluster algorithm:**

264 The cluster analysis computed patterns of co-transformation in five key structure metrics:  
 265 agricultural area, synthetic fertilizer use, agricultural employment, gross agricultural  
 266 output, and Agricultural Total Factor Productivity. These five metrics were included as  
 267 the key structure metrics because of their: a) key importance to assess the input and  
 268 production stages of food systems from the paradigm of productivity; b) relative low  
 269 variance in comparison to other structure metrics (e.g., expressed by current monetary  
 270 units); c) well-established use across different disciplines in the food literature to assess  
 271 different components and the efficiency of agricultural production (i.e., ratio of output  
 272 per unit of input – productivity); and d) independence (i.e., no strong pair-wise  
 273 correlations were identified for the rate of change between all the five structure metrics –  
 274 all Pearson’s correlation scores < 0.6).

275 Due to substantial variation in contextual drivers and states of the five key structural  
 276 metrics of food systems across countries globally, we investigated potential similarities  
 277 in their longitudinal change using a cluster analysis approach to be able to identify  
 278 transformation archetypes. For this purpose, we used the R package NbClust (Charrad et  
 279 al., 2014), which estimates the most appropriate clustering scheme and determines the  
 280 number of groups for a set of different objects. The cluster algorithm runs 30 indices  
 281 simultaneously, in addition to hierarchical clustering with different distance measures and  
 282 aggregation methods and obtains the final result by varying all of their possible  
 283 combinations. Before running the cluster analysis, we scaled the compound annual  
 284 change rate of the five key structural metrics by their respective median and median

285 absolute deviation and tested for collinearity to minimize the potential dominance of a  
286 particular set of metrics over others due to its magnitude, unit, or range. Finally, the  
287 metrics were merged into the same data frame by their scaled compound annual change  
288 rate values and only the countries with existing values for all five key structure metrics  
289 were included in the assessment by the cluster algorithm (leading to 161 countries in  
290 total). To generate the cluster dendrogram, the Euclidean distances of the dissimilarity  
291 matrix across all possible ordering of observations ( $2^{n-1}$ ) were used as input for the  
292 hierarchical cluster method (Ward2), which agglomerated the tightest cluster scheme  
293 possible and placed observations in order by the square root of the weighted sum of their  
294 squared distances.

295 **(c) Significance testing:**

296 Following the allocation of countries into different groups of transformation archetypes  
297 provided by the cluster analysis, we tested for statistical differences across groups for all  
298 structure and outcome metrics by an analysis of variance model, after the implementation  
299 of the Shapiro-Wilk test of normality. Tukey's honest significance test was applied to  
300 scrutinize differences between specific groups. Statistical significance threshold was set  
301 at 0.05.

302 **(d) Five-year intervals analysis:**

303 As a final step, we assessed the potential for non-linearities in the temporal trends of the  
304 food system metrics used in our analysis to influence allocation of transformation  
305 archetypes. To this end, we computed the compound annual change rate of all structure  
306 and outcome metrics of each transformation archetype in sub-divided periods of five  
307 years: from 1995 to 2000; from 2000 to 2005; from 2005 to 2010; and from 2010 to 2015.  
308 Here, however, we used the conventional compound annual change rate equation of real

309 end and start values for each five-year interval (and not the median of the first five start  
310 values and last five end values) due to the low number of observations in each interval.  
311 Goodness of fit statistics were calculated to explore potentially more appropriate cluster  
312 composition (guided by the same absolute number of clusters reported in the main results  
313 from 1995 to 2015). Within and across cluster distances (Ward2) were extracted and the  
314 cophenetic distance was calculated to express goodness of fit (correlation between  
315 Euclidean distances in the dissimilarity matrix and the agglomeration output from the  
316 hierarchical cluster, Ward2). The cophenetic distances were broadly similar in the five-  
317 year intervals and in the main interval from 1995 to 2015 for the three transformation  
318 archetypes assessed.

319

## 320 **Results & Discussion**

### 321 **Archetypes of change**

322 We identified three transformation archetypes in global food systems metrics from 1995  
323 to 2015, as described in Box 1: 1) rapidly expansionist transformation archetype (RETA),  
324 2) expansionist transformation archetype (ETA), and 3) consolidative transformation  
325 archetype (CTA). Evidence for the existence of three distinct transformation archetypes  
326 emerged more consistently than any other clustering across 30 different clustering indices  
327 tested (see Methods), with significant differences in trend metrics between the clusters  
328 supported by a post-hoc ANOVA analysis (Supplementary Tables S6 and S7). In  
329 mapping the archetypes, we found coexistence of the three distinct transformation  
330 archetypes in neighbouring countries from South America, Sub-Saharan Africa, and  
331 South-western and South-eastern Asia (i.e., broad geographic regions are not  
332 homogeneous but show all three identified archetypes in close proximity; Figure 2). Other

333 regions such as North America, Western Europe, and North Asia tended to be more  
334 homogeneous, mainly composed by CTA. More detailed results are available in the  
335 Supplementary results, from the interpretation of the cluster algorithm's output  
336 (Supplementary Figures S2, S3, S4, S5, and S6) to five-year intervals analysis  
337 (Supplementary Figures S7 and S8), along with individual country profiles. Below is a  
338 high-level summary of the key results.

### 339 *Agricultural productivity*

340 Our analysis suggests substantial progress from a perspective of food production and  
341 agricultural cost-efficiency over the past two decades. Increase in Agricultural Total  
342 Factor Productivity was evident across all transformation archetypes, identified by similar  
343 annual rates of change reported as median and interquartile range (in between brackets):  
344 RETA = 0.82% (1.56%), ETA = 1.2% (2.16%), and CTA = 1.36% (1.29%). Agricultural  
345 area, synthetic fertiliser use, and gross agricultural output displayed the largest rates of  
346 annual change in RETA followed by ETA then CTA (with exception of synthetic fertiliser  
347 use, which showed similar trends between ETA and CTA; Figure 3). Importantly, no  
348 distinctions were found across transformation archetypes in terms of agricultural area at  
349 the beginning of the analysis, expressed by percent of total land composed of agriculture:  
350 RETA = 32.44% (11.98%), ETA = 39.98% (12.23%), and CTA = 42.45% (14.38%),  
351 suggesting that trends are independent of starting baseline of the archetypes. Agricultural  
352 employment was under the steepest annual reduction in CTA, declining -3.11% (1.79%)  
353 per year, and decreased further in RETA, -1.16% (1.62%), than in ETA, -0.65% (1.07%).  
354 Agricultural Total Factor Productivity was the only metric amongst the key structure  
355 metrics to show no differences across the three transformation archetypes, increasing at  
356 a rate of approximately 1% per year. This progress in productivity is widely assumed to

357 bring wider socioeconomic benefits (Benton & Bailey, 2019; Matsuyama, 1992),  
358 however, our analysis shows it does not reliably reflect achievements across food systems  
359 in terms of environmental sustainability, overcoming coexistent forms of malnutrition, or  
360 improvement of socioeconomic wellbeing (Benton & Bailey, 2019; Matsuyama, 1992;  
361 Seppelt et al., 2020).

### 362 *Environmental outcomes*

363 Concurrent with the highest rate of increase in agricultural area, RETA exhibited the  
364 greatest magnitude of change in agricultural greenhouse gases emissions (GHGE), and  
365 ecological footprint of consumption, followed by ETA, whilst CTA tended to indicate  
366 comparative stability at high absolute impact levels (Figure 4). RETA and ETA displayed  
367 increasing rates of agricultural GHGE of 2.42% (1.87%) and 1.01% (1.68%),  
368 respectively, whilst CTA expressed virtually no change (despite showing decreasing rates  
369 of agricultural area). Ecological footprint of consumption increased more rapidly in  
370 RETA – 3.05% (1.47%) – in comparison to CTA – 0.99% (3.08%). Two metrics had  
371 unclear overall changes due to high variability across countries from 1995 to 2015  
372 (GHGE from land-use change and forestry and from Agriculture, Forestry and Other Land  
373 Use – AFOLU; Supplementary Tables S6 and S7). The CT archetype manifested a slow  
374 increase in forest area of 0.12% (1.07%) – the only environmental outcome with a higher  
375 rate of change than RETA and ETA.

376 The Red List Index exhibited slow decrease averaged across all transformation archetypes  
377 of roughly -0.3% per year. More comprehensive assessments of biodiversity relevant to  
378 food and agriculture (e.g., pollinators, coral reefs, and soil-dwelling organisms) have  
379 reported substantial declines in vital ecosystem services over past decades, but  
380 comprehensive country level data are lacking (Beckmann et al., 2019; Pilling et al., 2020).

381 Given the evidence of excessive chemical inputs in disrupting biogeochemical cycles  
382 (Campbell et al., 2017; Fowler et al., 2013), it is important to note the steady, high use of  
383 synthetic fertilizer in CTA and its steeply increasing use in RETA (and to some extent in  
384 ETA). CTA used an order of magnitude more synthetic fertiliser in absolute value in 1995  
385 than ETA, and two orders of magnitude more than RETA: CTA =  $2.2 \times 10^5$  ( $9.5 \times 10^5$ )  
386 tonnes, ETA =  $2.3 \times 10^4$  ( $16.3 \times 10^4$ ), and RETA =  $9 \times 10^3$  ( $3.8 \times 10^4$ ). Thus, our analysis  
387 reveals an absence of environmental pressure alleviation in CTA (with exception to a  
388 slow increase in forest cover) in combination with rapid agricultural intensification and  
389 expansion of agricultural area (strongly implicated in habitat loss and biodiversity decline  
390 - Schipper et al., 2020) in RETA, and to a slightly lesser extent in ETA. Collectively,  
391 these patterns unfold a worrying picture of the negative environmental impacts of recent  
392 global food system transformations.

### 393 ***Malnourishment***

394 Yield growth and agricultural intensification have been widely encouraged to nourish a  
395 growing global population (Alexandratos & Bruinsma, 2012; Benton & Bailey, 2019),  
396 yet we found this paradigm has had only partial success in terms of mitigating coexistent  
397 forms of obesity and undernourishment over the past 20 years. Levels of  
398 undernourishment decreased substantially in the rapidly expansionist archetype and  
399 moderately in the expansionist archetype, by median rates of -3.27% (3.26%) and -1.77%  
400 (4.21%) annually, respectively (Figure 4). This pattern reveals remarkable progress, for  
401 instance, towards ending hunger in countries that have been most affected by food  
402 insecurity – the prevalence of undernourishment in 1995 in RETA and ETA countries  
403 was 24.7% (20.4%) and 18.7% (19.1%), respectively. The rate of obesity increase,  
404 however, surpassed the rate of undernourishment decrease in all archetypes. Increases in

405 obesity were steepest in RETA, with growing prevalence of 5.04% (1.44%) per year,  
406 followed by the ETA with 3.34% (2.19%) and 2.42% (0.97%) for CTA. Note that RETA  
407 starts from a lowest base, with obesity prevalence in 1995 in RETA, ETA and CTA  
408 respectively as 3.25% (2.6%), 8.75% (1.45%), and 15% (5.7%).

409 These paradoxical trends in undernourishment and obesity reveal an important challenge  
410 for the majority of countries globally, since 87% of nations currently experience double  
411 or triple burdens of malnutrition (revealed by different combinations of overweight &  
412 obesity, underweight, and/or micronutrient deficiency - FAO et al., 2019). This is  
413 particularly relevant to countries that were not able to eliminate the substantial health and  
414 social challenges from food insecurity, such as those in South America, Sub-Saharan  
415 Africa, and South-western and South-eastern Asia (Figure 2). Simultaneous increases in  
416 obesity indicate high-levels of inequality in access to food and can overburden health  
417 systems in the pursuit of adequate prevention and treatment of non-communicable  
418 diseases attributable to dietary risks (Development Initiatives, 2020). An additional  
419 consideration is the systemic effects of an increasingly interconnected global food system,  
420 whereby rapid increases in both food imports and exports across the globe suggests a  
421 pattern of increased trade dependency. Food imports increased for all archetypes by  
422 roughly 10% annually (the highest rates of change recorded across all metrics),  
423 accompanied by an equivalent increase in food exports (highest values in RETA; Figure  
424 3). This pattern in food trade can be seen as a double-edged sword. It can bring efficiency  
425 through comparative advantage, monetary gains for actors involved in global markets,  
426 and food diversity for many globally (Clapp, 2017). On the other hand, trade dependency  
427 has also been suggested to be associated with potential systemic risk to environmental  
428 and economic shocks (especially in major export-oriented countries with less diversity in

429 food production - Kummu et al., 2020), with consequent threats to populations most  
430 vulnerable to price fluctuations, seasonal shortages, and reduced nutritional quality of  
431 food baskets (Davis et al., 2021).

#### 432 *Socioeconomic indicators*

433 The rate of change of GDP socioeconomic indicators tended to be independent from the  
434 transformation archetypes (Supplementary Tables S6 and S7). All transformation  
435 archetypes showed a general trend of increase in GDP per capita both for nominal and  
436 purchasing power parity: RETA = 3.5% (10.3%) and 2.5% (20.4%), ETA = 1.9% (13.1%)  
437 and 2.1% (10.2%), and CTA = 2.8% (9.5%) and 2.1% (7%). In terms of human  
438 development category (i.e., low, medium, high, or very high human development), RETA  
439 expressed, simultaneously, the biggest proportion of countries categorized as low human  
440 development in 1995 (n=17; 81%) and the lowest ratio of improvement in human  
441 development category by 2015 (n=7; 33.3%). ETA had a substantial proportion of  
442 countries in low and medium human development category at the beginning of the  
443 analysis (n=25 and n=20; 53% and 42.6%, respectively) and around two thirds of these  
444 countries showed improvements in their category at the end (n=30). CTA, finally,  
445 exhibited the highest proportion of countries in high and very high human development  
446 categories in 1995 (n=18 and n=19, 27.3% and 28.8%, respectively) and was tied with  
447 ETA in terms of improvement of category by 2015 (n=41, 62%). The Human  
448 Development Index was an exemption to this general trend in socioeconomic metrics,  
449 revealed by a steeper increase in RETA than in ETA, followed by CTA: median of 1.57%  
450 (0.95% interquartile range), 0.97% (0.52%), and 0.67% (0.39%), respectively  
451 (Supplementary Tables S6 and S7). Although only 135 countries were measured for this  
452 metric, the proportion falling into the three respective archetypes was broadly equivalent

453 to the full dataset: RETA = 21 (15.5%), ETA = 48 (35.5%), and CTA = 66 (49%)  
454 countries.

455 Economic development, traditionally measured by income level (i.e., low, lower-middle,  
456 upper-middle, and high-income countries stratified by gross national income per capita),  
457 was also found to be in a converse trajectory of change to RETA and ETA. Similar to the  
458 pattern for human development category, RETA not only had the highest proportion of  
459 low-income countries in 1995 (n=19, 73%), but also only 8 out of 26 countries (30.8%)  
460 ameliorated their income category by 2015. Conversely, CTA displayed the highest ratio  
461 of upper-middle and high-income countries early in the analysis (n=13 and n=27, 20.6%  
462 and 37.5%, respectively) and, simultaneously, showed the largest improvement in income  
463 category (n=37, 51.4%). The ETA had a substantial share of countries in the low and  
464 lower-middle-income category in 1995 (n=30 and n=27, 47.6% and 42.8%, respectively)  
465 and 29 out of 63 countries (46%) improved their condition by 2015. Overall, this means  
466 that expansionist traits exhibited by archetypes of change in global food systems did not  
467 broadly reflect increased incomes (i.e., GDP per capita) and, in more practical  
468 socioeconomic terms (i.e., comparable categories of gross national income per capita),  
469 tended to be associated with persistent socioeconomic disadvantages despite increased  
470 agricultural productivity.

471

## 472 **Relevance for research and practice**

473 Our findings add quantitative evidence to recent qualitative assessments on food systems  
474 transformation to show that despite increases in yields and productivity, national food  
475 production and supply across the countries investigated are in general failing to reorient  
476 their trajectories towards the ability to nourish people with healthy and sustainable diets

477 per unit input (Bahadur et al., 2018; Benton & Bailey, 2019; Poore & Nemecek, 2018;  
478 Springmann, Clark, et al., 2018; Willett et al., 2019). Our study reveals the extent of the  
479 historical and current trade-offs between food system productivity and more holistic  
480 measures of food systems sustainability and success in delivering environment, health,  
481 and other social outcomes, including how this relationship diverges across countries.

482 Our study was designed to expand the assessment of emerging patterns in global food  
483 systems beyond linear assumptions of change over time or multidimensional analysis of  
484 single surrogate outcomes. We consequently paid crucial attention in the selection of  
485 metrics to quantify links amongst agricultural productivity, environmental pressures,  
486 malnutrition, and socioeconomic wellbeing. We analysed key food system structure  
487 metrics that enable a nuanced understanding of multiple aspects of agricultural production  
488 in comparison to single metrics (e.g., ‘agricultural value added per worker’). In terms of  
489 outcomes, for instance, we expressed malnutrition outcomes by prevalence of obesity and  
490 undernourishment, which are conclusive endpoints of population health and nutritional  
491 status.

492 Our typology explicitly links coexistent changes in food systems structure and outcomes  
493 over time and, thus, can provide a complementary and timely diagnosis to other  
494 typologies drawn upon share of dietary energy (Fanzo et al., 2020), diversity of food  
495 supply (Bentham et al., 2020; IFPRI, 2015), and the literature of food systems  
496 transformations. In addition, our study provides longitudinal insights to important cross-  
497 sectional advancements in the scholarship. Marshall *et al.* (2021), after an extensive  
498 search of food systems typologies in the literature, investigated key metrics that lie  
499 between food productivity and nutritional outcomes, such as food environments (e.g.,  
500 quantity of supermarkets and diversity of food) and consumer-related factors (e.g.,

501 percentage of urban population). They observed five food system types, with salient  
502 similarities to our findings: rural and traditional; informal and expanding; emerging and  
503 diversifying; modernizing and formalizing; and industrial and consolidated. Collectively,  
504 these categories evince the potential to serve as an useful tool to simplify some of the  
505 complexity of global food systems with comparable models and can assist in the initial  
506 steps to design strategies and policies for sustainable and healthy transitions.

### 507 **Reflections on our approach**

508 Our typology is one of ‘requisite simplicity’ (Stirzaker et al., 2010) — we have uncovered  
509 important longitudinal differences across the globe spanning multiple countries and  
510 contrasted these findings with paradigms of productivity (i.e., production output per unit  
511 of input) and of systems efficiency and sustainability (i.e., the social, environmental, and  
512 economic links to optimized productivity). In doing so we have followed geopolitical  
513 boundaries and so excluded potential within-country diversities. This might be considered  
514 a limitation of our approach as it masks meaningful heterogeneity in food systems.  
515 However, we argue that by focusing on key geopolitical units, our typology can be used  
516 to inform national policymaking and international governance to leverage change in food  
517 systems (Abson et al., 2017). Secondly, we quantify and report our results under a general  
518 umbrella of agricultural production. We do not consider the details of different food types  
519 or groups (e.g., distinct structure and social-ecological outcomes amongst crops,  
520 livestock, or horticultural systems) because: a) previous studies are already available for  
521 this level (Poore & Nemecek, 2018; Springmann, Clark, et al., 2018); and b) in this study,  
522 we want to provide a holistic, quantitative, and complementary diagnosis of global food  
523 systems diversity to the body of literature in food systems transformations. Thirdly, the  
524 sample metrics included in our model and its period of assessment between 1995 and

525 2015 are a result of limitations in the availability and quality of the datasets explored.  
526 Other relevant metrics to our research problem were either excluded from our study due  
527 to insufficient observations (e.g., pesticide use) or unavailable for a reasonably long time  
528 to allow a longitudinal analysis (e.g., food loss & waste). Broader methodological  
529 reflections are elaborated in the Supplementary materials (Methodological reflections).  
530 Despite these limitations, we have identified ‘progress’ in many metrics of food systems  
531 across a vast number of countries globally in the past two decades. However, this notion  
532 of progress, narrowly defined in terms of higher agricultural output or improved cost-  
533 efficiency of production, was broadly independent from (or even counter to) the ability  
534 of global food systems to mitigate coexistent forms of malnutrition, pressures to planetary  
535 boundaries, or socioeconomic vulnerabilities. By quantifying the contrasts between  
536 development pathways across national food production and trade settings, we can track  
537 the empirical change of dynamic social-ecological interactions. These distinctions are  
538 valuable because they: a) show patterns of incoherence between expected food system  
539 provisions (i.e., goals and aspirations) and what they actually deliver more explicitly  
540 (Poore & Nemecek, 2018; Springmann, Wiebe, et al., 2018); and b) reveal multiple  
541 pathways for food system development, which highlights that the future is not  
542 deterministic.

543

## 544 **Conclusions**

545 Our analysis shows that under current trajectories of change, dominant paradigms  
546 focusing on higher yields alone are not only insufficient to achieve consensual global  
547 goals (e.g., ending hunger or limiting global warming to 1.5°C - Pradhan et al., 2017) but  
548 they could even hamper the attainment of other goals indirectly (e.g., health system costs

549 for reasonable prevention and treatment of diet-related non-communicable diseases -  
550 Development Initiatives, 2020). Our conceptual design and quantitative assessment  
551 further reveal a novel entry point for exploring the intertwined challenges of sustainable  
552 food systems, in particular for a better understanding of temporal dynamics. Given the  
553 long term trajectories revealed, a step change in strategies is likely needed to make  
554 progress that includes improved resilience of supply chains, sustainable agriculture (e.g.,  
555 no-till and precision agriculture, reduced reliance on synthetic fertilizers) and educational,  
556 economic, and environmental policies towards more plant-based diets (Nyström et al.,  
557 2019; Poore & Nemecek, 2018; Springmann, Clark, et al., 2018).

558 Our systemic approach helps to inform multiple decision-making jurisdictions about the  
559 systemic nature of increasingly interconnected global food supply chains and, at the same  
560 time, to invite innovative reflections for envisioning, implementing, and evaluating  
561 sustainability transitions in food systems (Oliver et al., 2021). These intertwined relations  
562 inherently raise questions about equity and power dynamics across nations, which can  
563 impair collaboration and constrain systems transformation in decision-making platforms  
564 if disregarded (Dornelles et al., 2020). Our assessment on pace, direction, and scale of  
565 multiple coexistent metrics enables an examination of ongoing and long-term patterns  
566 often neglected in favour of ‘safer’ judgments about isolated, individual risks in the short-  
567 term. Thus, our typology can help to reveal early stages of opportunities and constraints  
568 related to leverage points to sustainability transformations.

569 Essentially, the interdependence across global food systems requires policies consistent  
570 with their empirical trajectories and tailored for different transformation archetypes.  
571 Acknowledging the synergies between malnutrition, environmental, and social issues is  
572 key for sustainable development of food systems, in alignment with heterogeneity at

573 smaller scales (i.e., within-country diversities). Finally, more research is needed to  
574 uncover comprehensive ‘watchpoints’ where there are adequate data to quantify shifts in  
575 trajectories, in response to targeted efforts to meet Sustainable Development Goals, as  
576 they apply to food systems at global, national and regional scales.

577

## 578 **Acknowledgements**

579 This paper is a joint effort of the working group “sOcioLock-in” and an outcome of a  
580 workshop kindly supported by sDiv, the Synthesis Centre of the German Centre for  
581 Integrative Biodiversity Research (iDiv) Halle-Jena-Leipzig (DFG FZT 118). We thank  
582 all organizers, participants and administrative staff involved in the sDiv working group  
583 *sOcioLock-in*. This study was financed in part by the Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento  
584 de Pessoal de Nível Superior - Brazil (CAPES) - Finance Code 001. André Dornelles is  
585 funded by a Brazilian CAPES scholarship.

## 586 **Declarations:**

587 **Funding:** The funders of the study had no role in study design; in the collection, analysis,  
588 and interpretation of data; in the writing of the report; and in the decision to submit the  
589 paper for publication.

590 **Conflict of interests:** The authors have no relevant financial or non-financial interests to  
591 disclose.

592 **Data and code availability:** The authors declare that the data supporting all figures of  
593 this study are available within the paper and its supplementary materials. The data that  
594 support the findings of this study are available from: the Food and Agriculture  
595 Organization of the United Nations (available from <http://www.fao.org/faostat/en/#data>),  
596 World Development Indicators, from the World Bank (available from

597 <https://databank.worldbank.org/source/world-development-indicators>), SDG Indicators  
598 database, from the United Nations (available from  
599 <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>), Climate Analysis Indicator Tool, from  
600 the World Resource Institute (available from [https://www.climatewatchdata.org/ghg-](https://www.climatewatchdata.org/ghg-emissions?sectors=512%2C514)  
601 [emissions?sectors=512%2C514](https://www.climatewatchdata.org/ghg-emissions?sectors=512%2C514)), the International Labour Organization (available from  
602 <https://ilostat.ilo.org/data/>), the International Fertilizer Association (available from  
603 <https://www.ifastat.org/databases>), and the United States Department of Agriculture  
604 (available from [https://www.ers.usda.gov/data-products/international-agricultural-](https://www.ers.usda.gov/data-products/international-agricultural-productivity/)  
605 [productivity/](https://www.ers.usda.gov/data-products/international-agricultural-productivity/)). Furthermore, the authors declare that the scripts supporting all figures and  
606 results of this study are described in the Supplementary materials (Supplementary Table  
607 S8) and accession codes are deposited into a public repository: [*Add URL here if*  
608 *accepted*].

609

## 610 **References**

611 Abson, D. J., Fischer, J., Leventon, J., Newig, J., Schomerus, T., Vilsmaier, U., von  
612 Wehrden, H., Abernethy, P., Ives, C. D., Jager, N. W., & Lang, D. J. (2017).  
613 Leverage points for sustainability transformation. *Ambio*, *46*(1), 30–39.  
614 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13280-016-0800-y>

615 Afshin, A., Sur, P. J., Fay, K. A., Cornaby, L., Ferrara, G., Salama, J. S., Mullany, E. C.,  
616 Abate, K. H., Abbafati, C., Abebe, Z., Afarideh, M., Aggarwal, A., Agrawal, S.,  
617 Akinyemiju, T., Alahdab, F., Bacha, U., Bachman, V. F., Badali, H., Badawi, A., ...  
618 Murray, C. J. L. (2019). Health effects of dietary risks in 195 countries, 1990–2017:  
619 a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2017. *The Lancet*,  
620 *393*(10184), 1958–1972. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(19\)30041-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(19)30041-8)

621 Alexandratos, N., & Bruinsma, J. (2012). *World agriculture towards 2030/2050: the 2012*  
622 *revision*. <http://www.fao.org/3/a-ap106e.pdf>

623 Aschemann-Witzel, J. (2016). Waste not, want not, emit less. *Science*, 352(6284), 408–  
624 409. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aaf2978>

625 Bahadur, K. K., Dias, G. M., Veeramani, A., Swanton, C. J., Fraser, D., Steinke, D., Lee,  
626 E., Wittman, H., Farber, J. M., Dunfield, K., McCann, K., Anand, M., Campbell, M.,  
627 Rooney, N., Raine, N. E., Acker, R. Van, Hanner, R., Pascoal, S., Sharif, S., ...  
628 Fraser, E. D. G. (2018). When too much isn't enough: Does current food production  
629 meet global nutritional needs? *PLOS ONE*, 13(10), e0205683.  
630 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0205683>

631 Beckmann, M., Gerstner, K., Akin-Fajiyee, M., Ceaușu, S., Kambach, S., Kinlock, N. L.,  
632 Phillips, H. R. P., Verhagen, W., Gurevitch, J., Klotz, S., Newbold, T., Verburg, P.  
633 H., Winter, M., & Seppelt, R. (2019). Conventional land-use intensification reduces  
634 species richness and increases production: A global meta-analysis. *Global Change*  
635 *Biology*, 25(6), 1941–1956. <https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.14606>

636 Bengtsson, M., Alfredsson, E., Cohen, M., Lorek, S., & Schroeder, P. (2018).  
637 Transforming systems of consumption and production for achieving the sustainable  
638 development goals: moving beyond efficiency. *Sustainability Science*, 13(6), 1533–  
639 1547. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11625-018-0582-1>

640 Bentham, J., Singh, G. M., Danaei, G., Green, R., Lin, J. K., Stevens, G. A., Farzadfar,  
641 F., Bennett, J. E., Di Cesare, M., Dangour, A. D., & Ezzati, M. (2020).  
642 Multidimensional characterization of global food supply from 1961 to 2013. *Nature*  
643 *Food*, 1(1), 70–75. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43016-019-0012-2>

644 Benton, T. G., & Bailey, R. (2019). The paradox of productivity: agricultural productivity

645 promotes food system inefficiency. *Global Sustainability*, 2, e6.  
646 <https://doi.org/10.1017/sus.2019.3>

647 Campbell, B. M., Beare, D. J., Bennett, E. M., Hall-Spencer, J. M., Ingram, J. S. I.,  
648 Jaramillo, F., Ortiz, R., Ramankutty, N., Sayer, J. A., & Shindell, D. (2017).  
649 Agriculture production as a major driver of the earth system exceeding planetary  
650 boundaries. *Ecology and Society*, 22(4). <https://doi.org/10.5751/ES-09595-220408>

651 Campbell, B. M., Vermeulen, S. J., Aggarwal, P. K., Corner-Dolloff, C., Girvetz, E.,  
652 Loboguerrero, A. M., Ramirez-Villegas, J., Rosenstock, T., Sebastian, L., Thornton,  
653 P. K., & Wollenberg, E. (2016). Reducing risks to food security from climate  
654 change. *Global Food Security*, 11, 34–43. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gfs.2016.06.002>

655 Charrad, M., Ghazzali, N., Boiteau, V., & Niknafs, A. (2014). NbClust : An R Package  
656 for Determining the Relevant Number of Clusters in a Data Set. *Journal of Statistical*  
657 *Software*, 61(6). <https://doi.org/10.18637/jss.v061.i06>

658 Chaudhary, A., Gustafson, D., & Mathys, A. (2018). Multi-indicator sustainability  
659 assessment of global food systems. *Nature Communications*, 9(1), 848.  
660 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-018-03308-7>

661 Clapp, J. (2017). The trade-ification of the food sustainability agenda. *The Journal of*  
662 *Peasant Studies*, 44(2), 335–353. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03066150.2016.1250077>

663 Clark, M., & Tilman, D. (2017). Comparative analysis of environmental impacts of  
664 agricultural production systems , agricultural input efficiency , and food choice  
665 Comparative analysis of environmental impacts of agricultural production systems ,  
666 agricultural input efficiency , and food. *Environ. Res. Lett*, 12.  
667 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/aa6cd5>

668 Crippa, M., Solazzo, E., Guizzardi, D., Monforti-Ferrario, F., Tubiello, F. N., & Leip, A.

669 (2021). Food systems are responsible for a third of global anthropogenic GHG  
670 emissions. *Nature Food*, 2(3), 198–209. [https://doi.org/10.1038/s43016-021-00225-](https://doi.org/10.1038/s43016-021-00225-9)  
671 9

672 Cumming, G. S., Buerkert, A., Hoffmann, E. M., Schlecht, E., von Cramon-Taubadel, S.,  
673 & Tscharntke, T. (2014). Implications of agricultural transitions and urbanization  
674 for ecosystem services. *Nature*, 515(7525), 50–57.  
675 <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature13945>

676 Davis, K. F., Downs, S., & Gephart, J. A. (2021). Towards food supply chain resilience  
677 to environmental shocks. *Nature Food*, 2(1), 54–65. [https://doi.org/10.1038/s43016-](https://doi.org/10.1038/s43016-020-00196-3)  
678 020-00196-3

679 Development Initiatives. (2020). *2020 Global Nutrition Report: Action on equity to end*  
680 *malnutrition*. <https://globalnutritionreport.org/reports/2020-global-nutrition-report/>

681 Dornelles, A. Z., Boyd, E., Nunes, R. J., Asquith, M., Boonstra, W. J., Delabre, I.,  
682 Denney, J. M., Grimm, V., Jentsch, A., Nicholas, K. A., Schröter, M., Seppelt, R.,  
683 Settele, J., Shackelford, N., Standish, R. J., Yengoh, G. T., & Oliver, T. H. (2020).  
684 Towards a bridging concept for undesirable resilience in social-ecological systems.  
685 *Global Sustainability*, 3, e20. <https://doi.org/10.1017/sus.2020.15>

686 Fanzo, J., Haddad, L., McLaren, R., Marshall, Q., Davis, C., Herforth, A., Jones, A., Beal,  
687 T., Tschirley, D., Bellows, A., Miachon, L., Gu, Y., Bloem, M., & Kapuria, A.  
688 (2020). The Food Systems Dashboard is a new tool to inform better food policy.  
689 *Nature Food*, 1(5), 243–246. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43016-020-0077-y>

690 FAO. (2017). *The future of food and agriculture. Trends and challenges*.  
691 <http://www.fao.org/3/a-i6583e.pdf>

692 FAO, IFAD, UNICEF, WFP, & WHO. (2019). *The State of Food Security and Nutrition*

693        *in the World 2019. Safeguarding against economic slowdowns and downturns.*  
694        <http://www.fao.org/3/ca5162en/ca5162en.pdf>

695        FAO, IFAD, UNICEF, WFP, & WHO. (2020). *The State of Food Security and Nutrition*  
696        *in the World 2020. Transforming food systems for affordable healthy diets.*  
697        <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.4060/ca9692en>

698        Fears, R., Canales, C., ter Meulen, V., & von Braun, J. (2019). Transforming food systems  
699        to deliver healthy, sustainable diets—the view from the world’s science academies.  
700        *The Lancet Planetary Health*, 3(4), e163–e165. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2542-](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2542-5196(19)30038-5)  
701        [5196\(19\)30038-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2542-5196(19)30038-5)

702        Fowler, D., Coyle, M., Skiba, U., Sutton, M. A., Cape, J. N., Reis, S., Sheppard, L. J.,  
703        Jenkins, A., Grizzetti, B., Galloway, J. N., Vitousek, P., Leach, A., Bouwman, A. F.,  
704        Butterbach-Bahl, K., Dentener, F., Stevenson, D., Amann, M., & Voss, M. (2013).  
705        The global nitrogen cycle in the twenty-first century. *Philosophical Transactions of*  
706        *the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 368(1621), 20130164.  
707        <https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2013.0164>

708        Hadjikakou, M., Ritchie, E. G., Watermeyer, K. E., & Bryan, B. A. (2019). Improving  
709        the assessment of food system sustainability. *The Lancet Planetary Health*, 3(2),  
710        e62–e63. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2542-5196\(18\)30244-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2542-5196(18)30244-4)

711        IFPRI. (2015). *Global nutrition report 2015: Actions and accountability to advance*  
712        *nutrition and sustainable development.* <https://doi.org/10.2499/9780896298835>

713        IPCC. (2014). *Climate Change 2014: Synthesis Report. Contribution of Working Groups*  
714        *I, II and III to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on*  
715        *Climate Change.*        [https://www.ipcc.ch/pdf/assessment-](https://www.ipcc.ch/pdf/assessment-report/ar5/syr/SYR_AR5_FINAL_full_wcover.pdf)  
716        [report/ar5/syr/SYR\\_AR5\\_FINAL\\_full\\_wcover.pdf](https://www.ipcc.ch/pdf/assessment-report/ar5/syr/SYR_AR5_FINAL_full_wcover.pdf)

717 Kummu, M., Kinnunen, P., Lehtikoinen, E., Porkka, M., Queiroz, C., Rööös, E., Troell, M.,  
718 & Weil, C. (2020). Interplay of trade and food system resilience: Gains on supply  
719 diversity over time at the cost of trade independency. *Global Food Security*, 24,  
720 100360. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gfs.2020.100360>

721 Lindgren, E., Harris, F., Dangour, A. D., Gasparatos, A., Hiramatsu, M., Javadi, F.,  
722 Loken, B., Murakami, T., Scheelbeek, P., & Haines, A. (2018). Sustainable food  
723 systems—a health perspective. *Sustainability Science*, 13(6), 1505–1517.  
724 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11625-018-0586-x>

725 Marshall, Q., Fanzo, J., Barrett, C. B., Jones, A. D., Herforth, A., & McLaren, R. (2021).  
726 Building a Global Food Systems Typology: A New Tool for Reducing Complexity  
727 in Food Systems Analysis. *Frontiers in Sustainable Food Systems*, 5.  
728 <https://doi.org/10.3389/fsufs.2021.746512>

729 Matsuyama, K. (1992). Agricultural productivity, comparative advantage, and economic  
730 growth. *Journal of Economic Theory*, 58(2), 317–334. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-](https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-0531(92)90057-O)  
731 [0531\(92\)90057-O](https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-0531(92)90057-O)

732 Nyström, M., Jouffray, J.-B., Norström, A. V., Crona, B., Sjøgaard Jørgensen, P.,  
733 Carpenter, S. R., Bodin, Ö., Galaz, V., & Folke, C. (2019). Anatomy and resilience  
734 of the global production ecosystem. *Nature*, 575(7781), 98–108.  
735 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-019-1712-3>

736 Oliver, T. H., Benini, L., Borja, A., Dupont, C., Doherty, B., Grodzińska-Jurczak, M.,  
737 Iglesias, A., Jordan, A., Kass, G., Lung, T., Maguire, C., McGonigle, D., Mickwitz,  
738 P., Spangenberg, J. H., & Tarrason, L. (2021). Knowledge architecture for the wise  
739 governance of sustainability transitions. *Environmental Science & Policy*, 126, 152–  
740 163. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envsci.2021.09.025>

741 Oliver, T. H., Boyd, E., Balcombe, K., Benton, T. G., Bullock, J. M., Donovan, D., Feola,  
742 G., Heard, M., Mace, G. M., Mortimer, S. R., Nunes, R. J., Pywell, R. F., & Zaum,  
743 D. (2018). Overcoming undesirable resilience in the global food system. *Global*  
744 *Sustainability*, 1, e9. <https://doi.org/10.1017/sus.2018.9>

745 Paine, C. E. T., Marthews, T. R., Vogt, D. R., Purves, D., Rees, M., Hector, A., &  
746 Turnbull, L. A. (2012). How to fit nonlinear plant growth models and calculate  
747 growth rates: an update for ecologists. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, 3(2), 245–  
748 256. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2041-210X.2011.00155.x>

749 Pilling, D., Bélanger, J., & Hoffmann, I. (2020). Declining biodiversity for food and  
750 agriculture needs urgent global action. *Nature Food*, 1(3), 144–147.  
751 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43016-020-0040-y>

752 Poore, J., & Nemecek, T. (2018). Reducing food’s environmental impacts through  
753 producers and consumers. *Science*, 360(6392), 987–992.  
754 <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aag0216>

755 Pradhan, P., Costa, L., Rybski, D., Lucht, W., & Kropp, J. P. (2017). A Systematic Study  
756 of Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) Interactions. *Earth’s Future*, 5(11), 1169–  
757 1179. <https://doi.org/10.1002/2017EF000632>

758 Pradyumna, A. (2018). Planetary health and food systems: insights from global SDGs.  
759 *The Lancet Planetary Health*, 2(10), e417–e418. <https://doi.org/10.1016/S2542->  
760 [5196\(18\)30202-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2542-5196(18)30202-X)

761 Prajneshu, & Chandran, K. P. (2005). Computation of compound growth rate in  
762 agriculture: Revisited. *Agricultural Economics Research Review*, 18, 317–324.  
763 <https://ageconsearch.umn.edu/record/58480/files/art-13.pdf>

764 Ruttan, V. W. (1977). Induced innovation and agricultural development. *Food Policy*,

765 2(3), 196–216. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0306-9192\(77\)90080-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/0306-9192(77)90080-X)

766 Schipper, A. M., Hilbers, J. P., Meijer, J. R., Antão, L. H., Benítez-López, A., Jonge, M.  
767 M. J., Leemans, L. H., Scheper, E., Alkemade, R., Doelman, J. C., Mylius, S.,  
768 Stehfest, E., Vuuren, D. P., Zeist, W., & Huijbregts, M. A. J. (2020). Projecting  
769 terrestrial biodiversity intactness with GLOBIO 4. *Global Change Biology*, 26(2),  
770 760–771. <https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.14848>

771 Seekell, D., Carr, J., Dell’Angelo, J., D’Odorico, P., Fader, M., Gephart, J., Kummu, M.,  
772 Magliocca, N., Porkka, M., Puma, M., Ratajczak, Z., Rulli, M. C., Suweis, S., &  
773 Tavoni, A. (2017). Resilience in the global food system. *Environmental Research*  
774 *Letters*, 12(2), 025010. <https://doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/aa5730>

775 Seppelt, R., Arndt, C., Beckmann, M., Martin, E. A., & Hertel, T. W. (2020). Deciphering  
776 the Biodiversity–Production Mutualism in the Global Food Security Debate. *Trends*  
777 *in Ecology & Evolution*, 35(11), 1011–1020.  
778 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2020.06.012>

779 Springmann, M., Clark, M., Mason-D’Croz, D., Wiebe, K., Bodirsky, B. L., Lassaletta,  
780 L., de Vries, W., Vermeulen, S. J., Herrero, M., Carlson, K. M., Jonell, M., Troell,  
781 M., DeClerck, F., Gordon, L. J., Zurayk, R., Scarborough, P., Rayner, M., Loken,  
782 B., Fanzo, J., ... Willett, W. (2018). Options for keeping the food system within  
783 environmental limits. *Nature*, 562(7728), 519–525. [https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-018-0594-0)  
784 [018-0594-0](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-018-0594-0)

785 Springmann, M., Wiebe, K., Mason-D’Croz, D., Sulser, T. B., Rayner, M., &  
786 Scarborough, P. (2018). Health and nutritional aspects of sustainable diet strategies  
787 and their association with environmental impacts: a global modelling analysis with  
788 country-level detail. *The Lancet Planetary Health*, 2(10), e451–e461.

789 [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2542-5196\(18\)30206-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2542-5196(18)30206-7)

790 Stirzaker, R., Biggs, H., Roux, D., & Cilliers, P. (2010). Requisite Simplicities to Help  
791 Negotiate Complex Problems. *AMBIO*, 39(8), 600–607.  
792 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13280-010-0075-7>

793 Sukhdev, P. (2018). Smarter metrics will help fix our food system. *Nature*, 558(7708), 7–  
794 7. <https://doi.org/10.1038/d41586-018-05328-1>

795 TEEB. (2018). *The Economics of Ecosystems and Biodiversity (TEEB): Measuring what*  
796 *matters in agriculture and food systems: a synthesis of the results and*  
797 *recommendations of TEEB for Agriculture and Food's Scientific and Economic*  
798 *Foundations report*. [http://teebweb.org/agrifood/measuring-what-matters-in-](http://teebweb.org/agrifood/measuring-what-matters-in-agriculture-and-food-systems/)  
799 [agriculture-and-food-systems/](http://teebweb.org/agrifood/measuring-what-matters-in-agriculture-and-food-systems/)

800 Whitmee, S., Haines, A., Beyrer, C., Boltz, F., Capon, A. G., de Souza Dias, B. F., Ezeh,  
801 A., Frumkin, H., Gong, P., Head, P., Horton, R., Mace, G. M., Marten, R., Myers,  
802 S. S., Nishtar, S., Osofsky, S. A., Pattanayak, S. K., Pongsiri, M. J., Romanelli, C.,  
803 ... Yach, D. (2015). Safeguarding human health in the Anthropocene epoch: report  
804 of The Rockefeller Foundation–Lancet Commission on planetary health. *The*  
805 *Lancet*, 386(10007), 1973–2028. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(15\)60901-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(15)60901-1)

806 Willett, W., Rockström, J., Loken, B., Springmann, M., Lang, T., Vermeulen, S., Garnett,  
807 T., Tilman, D., DeClerck, F., Wood, A., Jonell, M., Clark, M., Gordon, L. J., Fanzo,  
808 J., Hawkes, C., Zurayk, R., Rivera, J. A., De Vries, W., Majele Sibanda, L., ...  
809 Murray, C. J. L. (2019). Food in the Anthropocene: the EAT–Lancet Commission  
810 on healthy diets from sustainable food systems. *The Lancet*.  
811 [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(18\)31788-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(18)31788-4)

812 Zabel, F., Delzeit, R., Schneider, J. M., Seppelt, R., Mauser, W., & Václavík, T. (2019).

813 Global impacts of future cropland expansion and intensification on agricultural  
814 markets and biodiversity. *Nature Communications*, 10(1), 2844.  
815 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-019-10775-z>

816 Zurek, M., Hebinck, A., Leip, A., Vervoort, J., Kuiper, M., Garrone, M., Havlík, P.,  
817 Heckelei, T., Hornborg, S., Ingram, J., Kuijsten, A., Shutes, L., Geleijnse, J., Terluin,  
818 I., van 't Veer, P., Wijnands, J., Zimmermann, A., & Achterbosch, T. (2018).  
819 Assessing Sustainable Food and Nutrition Security of the EU Food System—An  
820 Integrated Approach. *Sustainability*, 10(11), 4271.  
821 <https://doi.org/10.3390/su10114271>  
822

823 **Figure and Table: Titles and legends**

824 **Box 1**

825 Title: Characteristics of the transformation archetypes in global food systems.

826

827 **Figure 1**

828 Title: Simplified framework of structure and outcome metrics and their connections in  
829 our integrative model.

830 Legend: The structure metrics are widely used as measurements of performance of food  
831 production (cf. paradigm of productivity), whilst the combination of structure and  
832 outcome metrics were used in this study to assess their links to productivity (cf. paradigm  
833 of systemic efficiency).

834

835 **Figure 2**

836 Title: Transformation archetypes affecting national food production and supply of 161  
837 countries from 1995 to 2015.

838 Legend: Rate of annual change for structure metrics (on the top) and for outcome metrics  
839 (on the bottom) are measured by compound annual change rate (median, % / year).

840 Lowercase letters 'a', 'b', and 'c' besides arrows indicate significant differences from the  
841 rapidly expansionist transformation archetype (baseline reference expressed by 'a') for  
842 each metric at  $p < 0.05$  (e.g., 'a', 'a', and 'a' denote no difference across transformation  
843 archetypes whilst 'a', 'b', and 'c' indicate that all are different). Arrows pointing up show  
844 increasing trends, arrows pointing down show decreasing trends, whilst white rectangles  
845 indicate no change over time. The colouring scheme expresses magnitude of the rates of  
846 change: black colour designates rapid change ( $\geq 3\%$  and  $\leq -3\%$ ), dark grey colour reveals

847 intermediate (1.5% to 3% and -1.5 to - 3%), grey colour specifies mild (0.5% to 1.5% and  
848 -0.5% to -1.5%), whilst white colour represents slow change (0% to 0.5% and 0% to -  
849 0.5%). Abbreviations: TFP – Agricultural Total Factor Productivity; GHGE – greenhouse  
850 gases emissions; AFOLU – Agriculture, Forestry and Other Land Use.

851

### 852 **Figure 3**

853 Title: Global trends in structure metrics across transformation archetypes in global food  
854 systems of 161 countries from 1995 to 2015.

855 Legend: Values are expressed by medians, coloured boxplot hinges indicate the range  
856 between the 1<sup>st</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> quartiles, whiskers indicate 1.5 times the distance from the nearest  
857 hinge, and individual points are data observations beyond the extremes of the whiskers.  
858 Horizontal dashed lines represent absence of change (i.e., 0% annual change rate).  
859 Lowercase letters 'a', 'b', and 'c' besides arrows indicate significant differences from the  
860 rapidly expansionist transformation archetype (baseline reference expressed by 'a') for  
861 each metric at  $p < 0.05$  (e.g., 'a', 'a', and 'a' denote no difference across transformation  
862 archetypes whilst 'a', 'b', and 'c' indicate that all are different). The transformation  
863 archetypes are coloured as: rapidly expansionist in vermilion, expansionist in green, and  
864 consolidative in blue.

865

### 866 **Figure 4**

867 Title: Global trends in outcome metrics across transformation archetypes in global food  
868 systems of 161 countries from 1995 to 2015.

869 Legend: Values are expressed by medians, coloured boxplot hinges indicate the range  
870 between the 1<sup>st</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> quartiles, whiskers indicate 1.5 times the distance from the nearest

871 hinge, and individual points are data points beyond the extremes of the whiskers.  
872 Horizontal dashed lines represent absence of change (i.e., 0% annual change rate).  
873 Lowercase letters 'a', 'b', and 'c' besides arrows indicate significant differences from the  
874 rapidly expansionist transformation archetype (baseline reference expressed by 'a') for  
875 each metric at  $p < 0.05$  (e.g., 'a', 'a', and 'a' denote no difference across transformation  
876 archetypes whilst 'a', 'b', and 'c' indicate that all are different). The transformation  
877 archetypes are coloured as: rapidly expansionist in vermillion, expansionist in green, and  
878 consolidative in blue. Abbreviations: GHGE – greenhouse gases emissions; AFOLU –  
879 Agriculture, Forestry and Other Land Use.